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ABSTRACT

The fifth part of a 10-part series, this report was compiled by the Educational Development Center at Wilkes College. The series deals with various aspects of the treatment of delinquents and is intended as a summary of research findings in each of the areas treated. Each report was prepared by a scholar-practitioner and is presented in a way that will be of value to professionals who deal both directly and indirectly with the treatment of delinquent youths. The report is, in fact, one manuscript of 627 pages; however, to make it more easily used, it is published in 10 separate parts. A detailed table of contents for the entire series is presented at the end of each part. This part deals with developing vocational programs for chronically disruptive youth. It includes diagnostic and management procedures, programming steps, ways to develop a personalized vocational cluster, methods of assessment, and other topics. A description of a model program concludes the paper. (Author)

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THE TREATMENT OF DELINQUENCY SERIES
AN EDC REPORT

CHAPTER 5

Vocational Programming for
Chronically Disruptive Youth

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Editor's Preface

This report is part of a ten part series compiled by the Educational Development Center at Wilkes College. The series deals with various aspects of the treatment of delinquents and is intended as a summary of research findings in each of the areas treated. Each report was prepared by a scholar-practitioner and is presented in a way that will be of value to those whose calling has led them to educational careers dealing both directly and indirectly with the treatment of delinquent youth. The report is, in fact, one manuscript of 627 pages; however, to make it more easily used, it is published in ten separate parts. A detailed table of contents for the entire series is presented at the end of this part.

Additional copies of this part as well as other parts of the series are available from the Educational Development Center, Wilkes College, Wilkes-Barre, Pennsylvania 18703. Permission is granted for bona fide users to reproduce any part of the document. We ask only that the user exert care to preserve the integrity of the document and do justice to the authors by crediting quotations used to the author who prepared the original work.

We invite any and all comments and/or inquiries concerning this series.

Joseph A. Skok, D.P.A.

Director
Educational Development Center

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CHAPTER V

VOCATIONAL PROGRAMMING FOR CHRONICALLY DISRUPTIVE YOUTH

Sidney R. Miller and Bruno J. D'Alonzo

INTRODUCTION

Chronically disruptive youth, until the turn of the 20th century, were generally dealt with as trouble makers or criminals, with incarceration or exclusion from society by direct or indirect methods as the only appropriate societal treatment. Through the evangelistic efforts of Jane Addams and William James, public attitudes began to modify in the early 1900's, and norm-violating youth were treated less as problems of society and more as society's problems. This change in attitude was reflected in new programs for these youth. Communities, the courts, and institutions began to employ rehabilitative efforts as a substitute to punishment.

The efforts at rehabilitation were sporadic until the 1950's and 1960's when local, state, and federal agencies supported and funded the development of vocational training for these youth. The difficulty has been that most chronically disruptive youth begin

vocational preparation during late adolescence (McCandless, 1970; and Rice, 1975) rather than at the onset of adolescence. The latitude of vocational choices given to youth is dependent on five factors. They are: (1) socioeconomic background, (2) parental attitudes, (3) school achievement, (4) peer values, and (5) intelligence (Rice, 1975; and Shaw & McKay, 1972). Of these five factors, the chronically disruptive youth, who usually is in conflict with community values, tends to be rated low on three or more of the five factors (Heggen & Irvine, 1967).

Those youth currently being provided vocational training by private and public institutions are generally in the lower range of normal intelligence. The tendency is to place these low-achieving youth in routine, repetitively simple, and low-paying occupations even though they could perform successfully in more highly skilled and highly paid occupations (Kokaska, 1971; Oswald, 1968). The authors' survey found only two programs in vocational education that sought to develop the appropriate social and vocational skills among those individuals with average or above-average intelligence (Klappner & Neff, 1966; and Scurlock, West, Keith, & Vialle, 1964). Goldstein (1969) reiterates this belief that too much emphasis is placed on academic instruction and too little on the development of socio-occupational competence.

Interest in vocational programs has received increased attention since the court decisions of the early 1970's (Mills vs. the Board

of Education, 1972; and *Diana vs. State Board of Education*, 1970), and subsequent special education legislation in such states as Maine, California, and Illinois. These court decisions and legislative acts have resulted in broadened public school responsibilities toward all youth, from 3 to 21 years of age.

In the review of the literature, two distinct difficulties loom for the institutional educators and correctional officers seeking program and instruction guidance. The first difficulty deals with the inadequacy of information related to program efficacy. The literature searches end with the finding that numerous programs have been proposed and few have been formally evaluated to search out strengths and weaknesses. The second problem is the physiological, biological, and cognitive development of the adolescent who is the most cited chronically disruptive school age offender. As has been noted by numerous researchers (Erickson, 1968; Bruner, 1966; Ausubel, 1957; and Piaget, 1969), adolescent youth are experiencing significant physical, biological, and cognitive changes beginning around 11 years of age. These changes continue until the adolescent is approximately 17. The disruptive adolescent's problems are multiplied by the fact that resulting overlay makes the transition from childhood to adulthood additionally trying.

Curriculum Evaluation

As of 1972, only one-fourth to one-third of all special education in the United States was directed at the adolescent student (Martin, 1972), and fewer than ten percent of these programs were specifically designed for disruptive youth. It was further observed by Martin that only 20 percent of the youth leaving schools in the next four years will be fully employed and will seek higher education. Of the remaining students, 40 percent will be under-employed and 26 percent will be unemployed. Martin recommended the development of an integrated curriculum and other related skills be taught.

Hudson (1971), supporting Martin's position, reported that success in leaving a controlled public setting and integrating back into society was dependent on job training and subsequent employment. Miller (1975) and Sabatino (1973) held that this training depends on a properly integrated academic and vocational curriculum. Yet a review of the 40 vocational programs found only five (National Education Association, 1967; Bail and Hamilton, 1967; Crump, 1966; Cowles, Condon, Falkner, & Jackson, 1967; and Deno, Henze, Krantz, & Barklind, 1965) which provided specific educational instruction along with the vocational curriculum for the participating youth. Of the same 40 programs, only three (Deno, Henze, Krantz, & Barklind, 1965; Cowles, et al., 1967; Eddy,

Windle, de la Cruz, & Wolford, 1966) delineated responsibilities for educators in such vocational training programs.

Gadlin (1966), surveying the personnel working in an emotionally disturbed, social maladjustment program, found that two-thirds of all those personnel employed in these vocational programs were psychiatrists, physicians, psychologists, and vocational counselors. Personnel such as teachers, prevocational work coordinators, or curriculum directors were generally not included on the professional staffs.

The evaluation instrumentation used by the 40 programs was predominantly intellectual, vocational, and psychoanalytical. Among the instruments used to measure intelligence were the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children, the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale, and the Stanford-Binet. The vocational measures were the Minnesota Paper Form Board, the Purdue Pegboard Test, and the Kuder Interest Test. The psychoanalytical instruments were the test of Anxiety for Children, the Child Compliant Questionnaire, and SRA Survey of Interpersonal Values. Academic assessment instruments were used in only 5 of the 40 programs (Neff & Koltuv, 1967; Eddy, et al., 1966; Deno, et al., 1965; and Plue, 1972). The two academic areas assessed by the instruments were reading and mathematics. There were no learner aptitude measures of perception, sensory-motor development, language, conceptual abilities, social competency, or language arts.

Eight programs (New, 1972; Gruelle, 1967; Scurlock, et al., 1964; Deno, et al., 1965; and Cowles, et al., 1967) had direct liaison with outside agencies related to employment, vocational development, welfare, and judicial agencies. Among the organizations these programs established contact with and sought assistance from the Department of Employment, Bureau of Vocational Rehabilitation, Departments of Education, the Welfare Department, and the courts. The large number of programs performing without outside agency assistance is perplexing considering the demonstrated need to have a coordinated and integrated program with community groups (Scurlock, et al., 1964). Disruptive youth often have trouble comprehending and coping with community and societal demands. Bail and Hamilton (1967) stated that the success of any secondary program must possess nine ingredients, including the following:

- 1) Use of community leaders with competencies in vocational training.
- 2) Use of community facilities when appropriate and relevant.
- 3) Counseling from various state agencies concerned with vocational training.
- 4) Concern for practical application of the academic and vocational training.
- 5) In-depth preplanning of programs and facilities.

- 6) Adequate equipment and facilities to facilitate continuity between the program and career goals.
- 7) Teachers trained to recognize the needs of the youth and the community.

Work experience has been incorporated into the secondary school curriculum, often with the cooperation of the state rehabilitation agency, employment service, and sheltered workshops. These work-study programs have had the benefit of getting agencies involved in the vocational habilitation of disruptive students prior to graduation, but as yet they have not been as effective as they were designed to be.

Communication problems, in many cases, have existed between the secondary school and the rehabilitation agency, resulting in sporadic services and inadequate continuity of service (Hammerlynck & Espeth, 1969). State employment services generally do not have a working relationship with secondary special education programs and many do not feel it is their responsibility to find employment for these high school low-achieving or disruptive youth.

Program Studies

Neff & Koltun (1967) found in a five-year study that youth introduced to vocational training at an early age tended to accommodate the training more readily than did youth who entered into the programs at a later age. James (1966) reported, however, that older youth tended to be more realistic in career outlook. It was also found that students from higher socio-economic backgrounds had a greater number of job possibilities open to them. Conversely, youth from lower socio-economic neighborhoods tended to underestimate themselves and their career opportunities. James noted those who had outside experience tended to do better than those who remained in a sheltered environment. Gorelick (1966), contrarily, found that youth with realistic expectations were not more successful in obtaining jobs than those with unrealistic vocational expectations. Parnicky & Kahn (1963), reporting on 437 youths in a study, recommended the most accurate criterion for measuring the future success of a youth was his performance in the field.

Deno, et al., (1965) reported that out of 483 youth involved in a vocational program, those with high intelligence quotients remained in school and were the most successful in obtaining appropriate employment. Those who had trouble in retaining a position were more often non-white, left school early, tended to be in conflict with societal codes, and had multiple handicaps.

From this synopsis it is evident that the data provided to vocational counselors, educators, and correctional officers are scant. The designing of programs with integrated curricula dealing with educational and vocational needs must turn again to realistic postulates generated from data on the vocational preparation of disruptive youth, assuming that no organized pre-vocational structures have been applied to date.

Training and Instructional Preparation

While the demand for improved and increased integrated programs--involving both academics, prevocational, and vocational training--grows and the need of administrators for more appropriately trained vocational teachers mushrooms, there has been a documented lack of direction from state governments in improving the level of preparation among educators and counselors needed to work with the disruptive, and simultaneously upgrading the quality of programs for such youth. A study of certification requirements (Thelen, 1972) found the states of Alaska, Oregon, and Washington, D. C., are the only ones which require special language instruction courses for secondary teachers. The other states relied on the basic skill competencies of the teachers.

In another study, Clark and Oliverson (1973) found only nine states out of forty-seven had any secondary certification requirements for work-study coordinators. This same study found that only eight colleges or universities out of 207 surveyed had a differentiated elementary-secondary special education program, also demonstrating the lack of direction from training institutions.

Despite the documented inappropriateness of preparatory training programs to train professional personnel by universities, and inadequate certification standards by various states, disruptive youth still require unique social, educational, and personal responses from the teacher (McCandless, 1970; and Ausubel, 1957). The disruptive youth is entering the period of role experimentation (Erickson, 1968), developing the ability to think abstractly (Piaget, 1969; Flavell, 1963) without the assistance of sensory data; and significantly, adolescence is a period when one begins defining his or her role in society (Erickson, 1968; Evans & Potter, 1970; and McCandless, 1970). It is not a period in human emergence where instructors can be casually selected and instructional and management procedures can whimsically be determined.

The need for highly qualified personnel in secondary education becomes more acute when the student is the disruptive youth with a history of social conflict, school failure, and whose crisis of identity self-worth, and identifying potential self as a contributing member of society is being questioned by adult authority, peers, and self.

Learning Characteristics

In studying adolescent youths with learning problems, Walters and Krenzler (1970) noted that school dropouts tended to exhibit several behavioral characteristics associated with school performance. These factors are: age, intelligence, grade, reading and arithmetic achievement, socioeconomic level, absenteeism, school participation, and grade point average. McCandless (1970) reports that 14 percent of all dropouts were at or above the 64th percentile in intelligence test scores. In other words, many students viewed as being disruptive were in the top 36 percent of the national population intellectually. This finding agrees with others (Glueck & Glueck, 1950; Roman, 1957; Quay, 1965) who note that around 75 percent of dropouts and delinquents have reading disabilities and are not necessarily intellectually retarded. This data only illuminate the failure of vocational programs to reach a critical population which could benefit from such training.

Following this up, Sabatino (1973) indicated that many of the neglected adolescents in our schools with average or above average intelligence, who are failing in the traditional educational setting, should be considered learning disabled. If secondary schools were to adopt this definition, a significant break with the past would occur. Until now, public education has dealt with the troubled adolescent as either retarded, lazy, or turned off, and has placed them into "maintenance" programs where the primary thrust was to keep them

out of the mainstream of intellectual, academic, social, and vocational development. As a result, many of the secondary school disruptive students now have either an aversion or lack the skills and information to deal with testing situations (Clarke & Waters, 1972).

Management Procedures

The lack of clear definitions and well-enunciated programs and instructional strategies has resulted in efforts at delineating behavioral data, so the educator can gain insights when interacting with the disruptive adolescent. The most common approaches in working with the youth have been either counseling or behavior modification, both of which have some demonstrable short-term effects but have not generated long-term value.

Jersild (1957), in defining parameters affecting deviant adolescent behavior, contended a majority of adolescent behavior disorders are merely exaggerated manifestations of emotional instability. Since then Erickson (1963), Mussen, Conger, and Kagan (1969), and Piaget (1969) have all noted that adolescence is an inherent crisis period in each individual's development. It is a period in which an individual is beginning to experiment with such abstract notions as democracy, freedom, and identity and equality. In looking at alternative approaches, Anadam and Williams (1971) found in

working with adolescents that teacher-student consultative models of classroom management were more effective than the more traditional teacher-curriculum model. Wagner (1972) concluded that many disaffected students feel alienated, and believe that the curriculum is irrelevant and fails to appeal to their individual interests and needs. Ariel (1971) allowed adolescents to monitor their own behavior and demonstrated increased learning through the use of a student established and maintained goals and objectives record inventory. McCandless (1970) noted that sharing of goals with the class is essential, particularly where the student-teacher values differ and where the student is male and the teacher demands conformity and obedience. He further states that the peer group is a more compelling force than any school official. Inappropriate behavior of secondary students is a universal problem (Eichorn, 1967), and the deviant student presents additionally confounding problems since he is troubled, not only with his developmental cycle, but also he is frustrated by his inability to adequately achieve and interact with peers and society.

Behavioral Approach

The literature points to the consultative model as the most popular and effective with adolescent youths with learning handicaps.

The need to establish a personal identity, and the requirement of society that an individual between ages 13 and 18 begins to establish career goals, results in a need of the adolescent to participate in professional life decisions. Thus, both personal and societal demands require the student to become an integral part of the educational system.

The traditional psychiatric-psychological therapeutic model has failed to meet the needs of such youths (Sabatino, 1973). Furthermore, there is evidence that such correctional techniques may be harmful in an adolescent's emotional and educational maturation. It is for this reason that efforts to expand behavior management have occurred so rapidly in just a few short years. Several studies have been conducted with adolescents (Atthowe & Krasner, 1965; Meichenbaum, Bowers, & Ross, 1968; Slack & Schwitzgebel, 1960; and Steffy, 1966). Many of these programs have resulted in behavioral changes. Slack and Schwitzgebel (1960) using food and money were able to reduce the chronic, disruptive behavior of ghetto-area boys who historically have been in conflict with school and society. Cohen, Filipczak, Bis, and Cohen (1966) have demonstrated the effectiveness of food and money in positively altering behavior among adolescents in academic environments. Wilkinson, Saunders, and Reppucci (1971) developed a three-level program for institutionalized delinquents. The three levels progressively sought increased exemplary behavior from the students. The levels have various scales which could be adopted for learning

disability programs for adolescents. Two studies (Smith & Riebock, 1971; and Pendrak, 1974) demonstrated the effectiveness of performance contracting with adolescent students in reading. Both studies reported that overt behavior and reading performance improved through the use of contracting. Wagner (1972) noted the disadvantaged often feel disenfranchised by the educational setting. He recommends behavioral changes in the schools. Among these modifications are: (1) making the curriculum relevant, (2) teaching to the students' strengths, (3) having teacher-parent conferences near the student's home, and (4) providing the student with close and continual behavioral and educational monitoring.

The issue of what motivates an adolescent has been an ongoing debate among investigators. Senborn and Niemiec (1974) claimed material accomplishment, recognition, social involvement, and personal development were the four factors rated highest by high school students. The investigators concluded by noting that none of the four tends to be preeminent over the others. In findings by Anneliese (1973), who studies the conduct of delinquent adolescents, it was noted that some troubled youth knew right from wrong in social and personal encounters, but were unable to act on this knowledge. He further reported that these adolescents were unable to maintain an overriding abstract personal or social ideal. When they attempted to hold an ideal, new conditions often arose which frustrated them. He noted that one cause of this frustration was the inability to adapt when

new parameters were introduced. The phenomenon was noted by Strauss and Lehtinen (1947) and Clements and Peters (1967) in primary brain-damaged learning disabled children.

McCandless (1970), Jenson and Rohwer (1968), Glueck and Glueck (1950), and Scrofani, Suziedelis, and Shore (1973) sought to determine whether low socioeconomic students also tended to have lower intelligence tests because of genetics or because of training. They found that when the lower socioeconomic group was given conceptual training, their scores rose to a comparable level with middle socioeconomic student scores. These authors concluded that lower socioeconomic students--who often become troubled--suffer not from intellectual capacity, but lack sufficient training in the information and skill areas measured by intelligence tests. These findings are compatible with the earlier findings reported by Clarke and Waters (1972) and Wade and Shertzer (1970).

Further studies have been completed on the relationship between reading and adolescent problems. Alsop (1973) and Staats and Butterfield (1965) showed the validity of diminishing reinforcement techniques in the teaching of reading to a 14-year-old delinquent male with a second grade level. The subject was able to increase his reading level 2.8 grades. His behavior in school also improved. Earlier, Dorney (1967) demonstrated the modification of attitudes of adolescents through the use of reading instruction and Raygor's (1970) study suggests that results on the Cooperative English Test enhance

the prediction of potentially troubled adolescents. Fendrick and Bond (1936) discussed adolescence and reading as did other early studies (Glueck and Glueck, 1934, 1950; Glueck, 1953; Kvaraceus, 1964). The Illinois Curriculum Program, Counteracting School Dropouts (1967), shows that a number of Illinois schools use special education programs geared to diminish the soaring dropout rates. Developmental and/or remedial reading courses, vocational classes, and work-study programs were among those receiving the highest ratings in effectiveness and use.

The U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (1973) publication "Positive Approaches to Dropout Prevention" discusses many projects around the country using various means to decrease dropouts. Among them are the use of expanded career educational programs, teacher awareness and training programs, and changes in counseling services. A counseling learning center was established in St. Louis (Project STAY) whose purpose was to work with pupils referred as potential dropouts and to provide technical and preventive assistance to teachers in the regular classroom. Other programs relating delinquency to specific learning disabilities have seemingly illuminated an otherwise dark area [Closson (1971); Dinitz, et al., (1957); Frease (1972); Graubard (1967); Kelgord (1968); Schlichter & Ratliff (1971); and Walle (1972)]. The value of these programs has not as yet been determined.

Program Development

A considerable number of students adjudged chronically disruptive suffer from not only social and academic lag, but also from vocational development discontinuity. Unlike the average student who attends school regularly, the chronically disruptive student is often denied or excluded from programs because of his asocial conduct. The longer the interruption of the vocational program, the more critical will be the long-range educational and vocational problems that face the student. Consequently, the development of an integrated academic-vocational program must be viewed as a means through which related learning experiences are introduced and taught. The integration of the two formerly separate curriculums can be an effective mechanism to accelerate the student's lagging program.

Procedures governing the development of such programs would require that all agencies provide a comprehensive program of special education services. These services include:

1. a viable organizational and financial structure;
2. procedures for identifying and evaluating programs and services;
3. continuum of options which incorporate appropriate instructional programs and supportive services;
4. qualified personnel who can provide a wide range of services;

5. appropriate and adequate facilities, equipment, and materials;
6. functional relationships with public and private agencies which can supplement or enhance the public school's special education programs;
7. interaction with parents and other concerned persons, which facilitates the educational development of chronically disruptive youth;
8. procedures for internal evaluation of the programs and services;
9. continuous planning for program growth and improvement based on internal and external evaluation.

A majority of the programs for disruptive youth followed the work-study approach. The criticism of this approach has been the continuance and promulgation of "watered down" curricula, focusing on academic content and not on an integrated curriculum. Mason and Haines (1972) have developed a range of strategies they believe will provide a more effective work-study program. The strategy is designed to achieve a variety of goals.

These goals are:

1. to keep students (under-achievers and potential dropouts) in school part time while they obtain needed general education;
2. to help students to explore the world of work and to assist them in occupational choice-making;
3. to help these students with personality and behavior problems;
4. to help the students earn money;

5. to provide practice for what has been learned in the classroom and to assist in the transition from school to job;
6. to develop general and specific occupational skills, knowledge, and attitudes, particularly those not readily available in a general curriculum.

Prevocational and Vocational Preparation

The prevocational experiences provided for the disruptive adolescent should encompass an understanding and awareness of the wide range of careers available in our society. They must explore several specific clusters of careers through hands-on experiences and field observations. As they near the completion of their program during the junior and senior years of school, students pursue their selected occupational area exercising one of the following options:

1. Intensive job preparation for entry into the world of work immediately upon leaving high school;
2. Preparation for post-secondary career education;
3. Four-year career preparation;
4. Preparation for adult continuing education.

The approach to vocational cluster development uses existing families of careers and identifies specific careers under each cluster in which individuals such as the exceptional student may have an

interest and the ability to pursue. A description of specific vocations encompasses physical demands, working conditions, training time, and general educational development needed. These descriptions of careers are found in either the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (1965), the Supplement to the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (1968), or the Supplement of the Occupational Outlook Handbook (1974-1975). This system of vocational cluster development is a more general method and does not specifically describe vocations as they exist in the local community where the disruptive youth resides.

The following approach to vocational cluster development is advocated by the authors as a method to utilize the local community in developing more relevant units.

Personalized Vocational Cluster Development

The following steps are taken to develop career clusters for the disruptive youth:

1. An assessment of the individual's affective, cognitive, psychomotor, and vocational competencies through a differential diagnosis is conducted to identify strengths as they relate to particular career demands.

2. A survey of the local community to identify businesses, industries, and career stations which are available and appropriate for disruptive youth is then conducted.
3. Once these business and industrial sites are identified in the local community, a breakdown of the vocations available at each site is developed in the following manner:
 - a. Every vocation within a particular business, industry, or station is identified.
 - b. An organizational flow chart of every vocation within a particular site is identified and listed from the most to the least sophisticated.
 - c. These vocations are organized into a cluster.
 - d. Each vocation is then broken down into major tasks required, physical demands required on the job, working conditions, the physical environment on the job, and training time required to effectively perform on the job. This includes the knowledge and abilities

necessary to satisfactorily hold this job, and the general educational development required to obtain the job.

- e. A job task analysis is computed on every major task identified in each specific career.

Programming Steps

Besides failing to provide a system which integrates the academic and vocational curriculums, the majority of programs inadequately proceed through the essential steps in orienting the student to the world beyond his home and school. This orientation must be supervised and structured so the student is exposed to the full range of opportunities which will better prepare him for the adult world of work.

The following range of experiences is recommended:

1. SURVEYING: This experience provides an awareness of academic needs and career availability in the community. These experiences can be accomplished through field trips, movies, video taping, printed materials, and cassette slide presentations.

2. **OBSERVATION:** Here the youth spends short periods of time at a specific retail store, industry, or orientation site developing a better understanding of particular vocational directions.
3. **WORK EXPERIENCE:** At this level actual experience at a learning center in work situations or simulated work situations is provided. Similar experiences can be made available to the youth at training stations in the community, such as retail stores, industries, or special workshops. The academics are generally directly related to the work experiences, but when appropriate it may have a global direction.
4. **WORK-STUDY:** This phase has a general vocational curriculum which is related to the employment or career planning program which the youth is developing outside the educational setting. The youth will learn skills on the job and relate his academic and vocational work in the community to his classes.
5. **VOCATIONAL COOPERATIVE EDUCATION:** This type of program is designed to provide the student with a sequence of academic and laboratory experiences in school which prepare him for a specific career or career family that he will pursue upon completing his schooling. While working in the community he is closely supervised on the job by his

employer and by a staff member assigned as a coordinator from the school.

6. COMMUNITY WORK: This is the final stage in the vocational program for the student. Upon completing formal schooling, he will work independently in the community at a job he has been prepared for while attending school.

Vocational Development Center

To successfully orchestrate and carry through such an integrated program, teachers, psychologists, psychometrists, counselors, work coordinators, shop instructors, and administrative personnel must be harmoniously fused at a Vocational Development/Diagnostic Center. For too long, programs for the disruptive youth have concentrated on the psychological and not on the educational aspects of the vocational preparation process (Gadlin, 1966; and Sabatino, 1973). Only through the fusing of essential and appropriate personnel can a total integrated program be designed and successfully be accomplished.

There is a growing recognition of this as demonstrated by the new programs now being designed by universities, state departments of education, and local school districts (Cooperative Occupation Education, 1972; Work Experience and Career Exploration Program Guide, 1974; and a Handbook for Career Guidance Counselors, 1975).

The first responsibility of such a multidisciplined team is the establishment of a diagnostic center. This center should assess the educational and vocational competencies of the student entering into the program. This evaluation process should include the assessment of sensory-motor, academic, social, and vocational orientation of the student. Only after relevant and appropriate assessment instruments have been administered to the student should a team review the student's competencies and weaknesses and lay out a general program. This program must include reading, mathematics, science, and specific vocational development skills. It is also within the purview of the team to recommend therapeutic counseling.

Diagnostic Procedures

The development of diagnostic protocol has been advocated by Brolin (1972) and Gellman (1968). They support the need to determine not only the vocational needs of the disruptive youth, but also the psychoeducational, medical, sociological, and psychological variables.

The authors contend that the two essential diagnostic areas are the vocational and psychoeducational, and that the medical, sociological, and psychological should be ancillary to the process. What must be delineated in any diagnostic protocol is the job effectiveness skills the

student possesses, and how these ranges of skills interface with the established or planned personal goals.

Psychoeducational. This segment of the diagnostic procedures involves determination of the student's aptitude and academic skill and vocational interests. Instruments such as the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children and the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale are used to measure intelligence; the Metropolitan Achievement Test is used to measure achievement; the Beery-Buktenica Visual Motor Integration Test is used to measure sensory-motor abilities; the Reading-Free Vocational Interest Inventory is used to measure vocational interests; the Purdue Pegboard is used to measure manipulative skills; and the General Aptitude Test Battery (GATB and N-GATB) is used to measure aptitude and should be used in a screening battery.

Environmental Assessment

A. The evaluation of general behavior in a simulated work environment is used to determine those basic social skills an individual possesses for interacting with others.

B. The evaluation of jobs samples enables a classroom or shop teacher or a vocational counselor to determine the level of skills a student possesses in performing specific job tasks. Assessment batteries like the Singer/Graflex Systems, the Philadelphia Jewish

Employment and Vocational Service, and the Tower Systems can be used for this purpose.

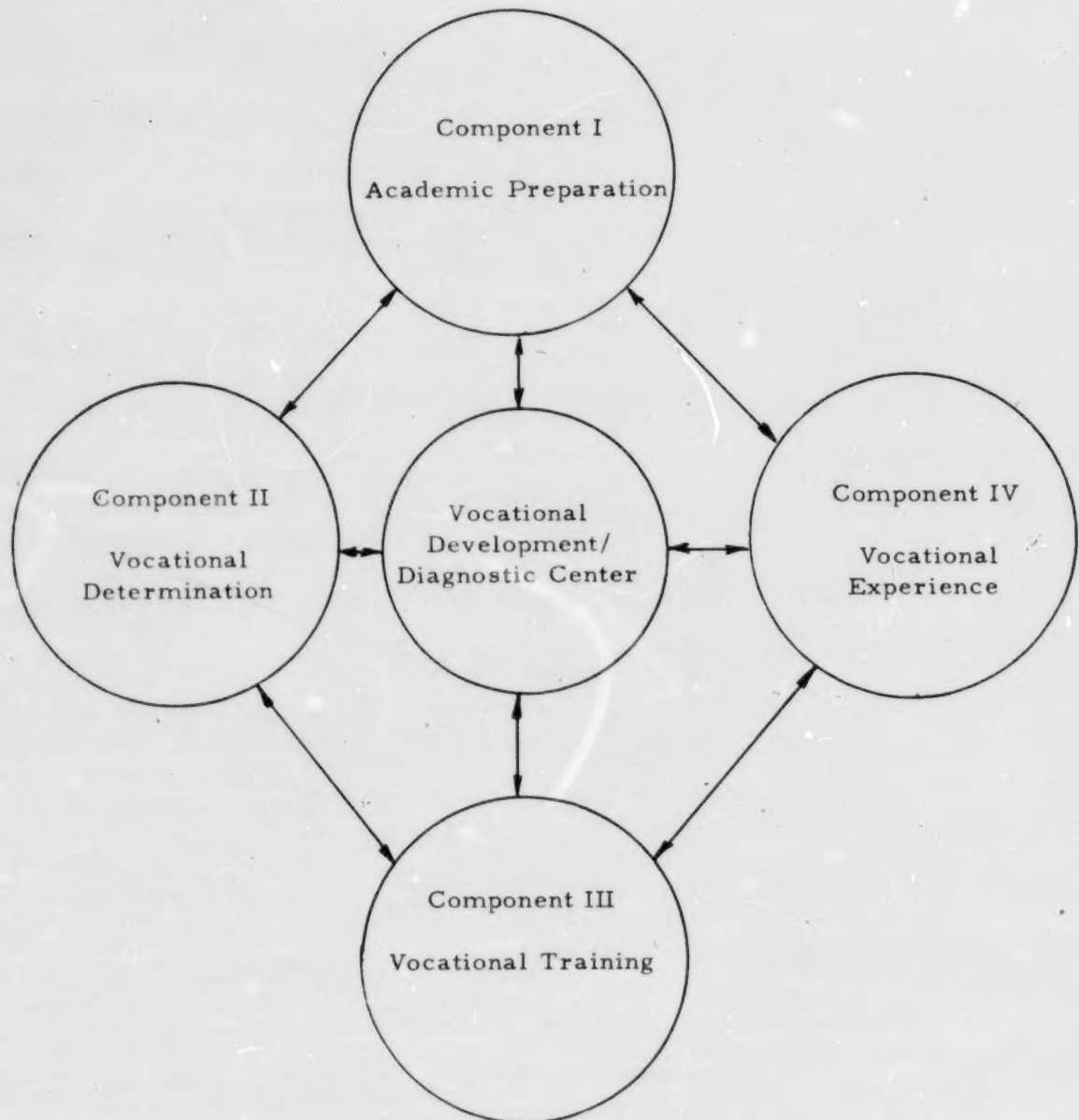
Ancillary Assessment. This segment of the evaluation should be conducted only if the previous two segments fail to provide satisfactory data. Medical and psychological data have marginal value in establishing programmatic goals for the disruptive youth.

Once the general needs and directions have been established, the educational and counseling personnel can then, in conjunction with the student, establish a general, directed curriculum, providing the basic academic skills, and a specific curriculum, integrated with prerequisite information. This information must deal with four phases of daily life: finances, the law, health and safety, and social awareness.

The integrated program consists of five components. (See Figure 1.) These components are interdependent. Without the implementation of each component, the others will be weakened and the student preparation will be diluted. The five components are:

1. Academic Preparation. The academic program will be centered around the assessment findings and the student's vocational goals, training, and experience.
2. Vocational Goals. The goals must be determined with the student. The goals must interface with his academic abilities and potential. Previous experience and the

FIGURE 1



student's ability to gain from vocational training must also be considered.

3. Vocational Training. Training must follow the judgment of whether the student has either the ability or potential, the interest in the general or specific area, and understands the implication of the vocational choice.
4. Vocational Experience. To fully understand the implications of a vocational choice, the student must have some experience at a vocational site. Exploration of whether he has the skills, interest, and desire to training must be determined.
5. Vocational Development/Diagnostic Center. This center is designed to assess the vocational needs of the handicapped student. However, individuals have the opportunity to return to the center if additional services are necessary. Within the center, diagnostic-evaluative techniques and ameliorative services are provided. Evaluation programs include an assessment of the individual's affective, cognitive, and psychomotor competencies. In this controlled environment, additional competencies are developed through personal adjustment, work adjustment, counseling, simulated work experience, application of basic academic skills, and development of production competencies essential to meeting the demands of competitive employment.

The Vocational Development/Diagnostic Center and its components add a dimension of precision and ultimate economy in programming for the career education needs of the handicapped.

Curriculum

Silberberg (1975) called for a vocational curriculum free of books. Sabatino (1973) recommended an instructional approach with preprogrammed high interest, low vocabulary material. This material would be specifically geared to the reading and interest level of the students and would interface with the students' vocational direction. While there has been some attempt at developing this material, the review of the literature reveals significant gaps in its availability. Silberberg (1975) recommends the extensive use of audio-visual equipment and guest lectures to heighten the interest of the disruptive youth. Table 1 represents suggested curriculum areas for disruptive youth in addition to basic skill development.

Management Tactics

Instructional approaches and materials without appropriate behavioral management tactics are ultimately doomed when working

TABLE I

Curriculum Content Areas

<u>Finance</u>	<u>The Law</u>	<u>Health and Safety</u>	<u>Social Awareness</u>
Consumer Education	Drugs	Smoking	Personal Goals
Purchasing Retail Goods	Labor Laws	Narcotics	Decision Making
Workman's Compensation	Government:	Alcohol	Employer Needs
Money and Banking	Local	Insurance	Use of a Newspaper
Personal Budgeting	State	Personal Safety	How to Study
Income Taxes	Federal	Personal Hygiene	How to Apply for a Job
	Personal Rights	Sex Education	Labor Unions
	Courts and the Police		

with the youth who has experienced years of school frustration. An effective teacher should be acquainted with the theories of Skinner (1968), Bandura (1969), and Lazarus (1971). The applications of these theories are contained in programs of Hewett (1968), Peter (1965), Kunzelman, et al. (1970), and Smith (1970).

Each of the theories and programs acknowledges the necessity of moving from the concrete reinforcement to more abstract social reinforcers. The literature also supports the thesis that reinforcement procedures must consider not only the production phase of learning but also time factors. Too frequently educators have reinforced the completion of a task--referred to as a ratio measure. They have not supported the length of time the student will work at a task (interval measure), nor have they measured the intensity of the student's involvement in an activity.

In working with an adolescent, baseline behavior (the point at which the student is operating in a specified area) must be pinpointed so teacher and student know where they are and where they are going. Once this has been determined, the teacher and student can develop meaningful and realistic goals and objectives as they relate to reading, mathematics, social studies, science, and vocational development. This type of behavioral management can be best implemented through the use of performance contracting.

Performance Contracting. Performance contracting is the forming of an agreement between a teacher and a student. In the agreement the student acknowledges that for a specified quantity of performance, he will receive a reward (either money, tokens, food, or free time). Before the performance contract is initiated, the diagnostic-assessment process must be completed. From these data the teacher can establish baseline expectations (the level of performance) for the student. Among the types of instruments used in the diagnostic-assessment process are intelligence, aptitude, achievement, and criterion measurement tests. Each of these instruments enables the instructor to more aptly identify the student's skills and interests.

Once the baseline data have been determined, the teacher, in conjunction with the student, establishes realistic goals and objectives. If the student is unable, or not ready, to reach work in consultation with the teacher, she alone establishes the goals and objectives. In addition, once realistic objectives are established, contingencies for completion of the specific quantity at a specified level of quality are determined.

When the student has reached the point of being able to work in concert with the teacher, the teacher must consult the student about objectives and contingencies. It is designated as a purpose of performance contracting that the agreement be a joint and not a unilateral decision.

Once every two to three weeks a review of the goals, objectives, methods, and materials must be evaluated to determine whether the program is on track and on time. Often student and teacher, once the goals and objectives have been pinpointed, neglect to determine whether the original conclusions were appropriate, relevant, and effective. If they fail to meet the test of appropriateness, relevancy, and effectiveness, then they must be redrawn. Evaluation and re-evaluation are essential components of any program.

Reinforcers during the remainder of the program must be continuously evaluated to measure student effectiveness. The re-evaluation process must again include the use of criterion tests which measure academic development/performance, charts which measure overt behavior, and student-teacher conferences which pinpoint personal attitudes as they relate to achievement, general behavior, and self-image.

Token Economy. One type of reinforcer is a token economy. In brief, positive behaviors and attitudes are reinforced by "good" write-ups or a promise to pay a specific amount of tokens, token-money surrogate. Undesired behaviors are negatively reinforced, also by write-ups; this is done through a system of fines either by subtracting tokens from a student's account or in the case of serious "negative" write-ups or point write-ups. All staff members serve as reinforcing agents and can issue the appropriate write-up. The means

of attaining the good write-ups and situations involving negative write-ups are clearly defined for each student during the orientation process prior to entering the formal program. A few weeks in the program with exposure to the system finds most students motivated for earning the tokens. Earning the tokens serves three vital functions: (1) an immediate reinforcer of positive behavior; (2) an educative tool teaching basic concepts in finance management; (3) a concrete demonstration to the student that he is capable of achieving. The lack of positive attitudes and self-esteem toward the ability to achieve is a basic weakness of the disruptive youth. For specific information on this type of behavioral modification, see Chapter VI.

Model Program

Any program developed by an institution or public school must establish clear operational procedures for assessment of the students' skills, delineate how a program will be provided, and explain the types of experiences with which the youth will be provided. In addition, the personnel who will participate in the vocation program must be identified. Personnel considered to be most effective with the disruptive youth are special education teachers, prevocational counselors, a psychometrician or school psychologist, and a work experience and/or

a job coach. One individual, possibly a vocational coordinator, ought to be given overall program management responsibilities.

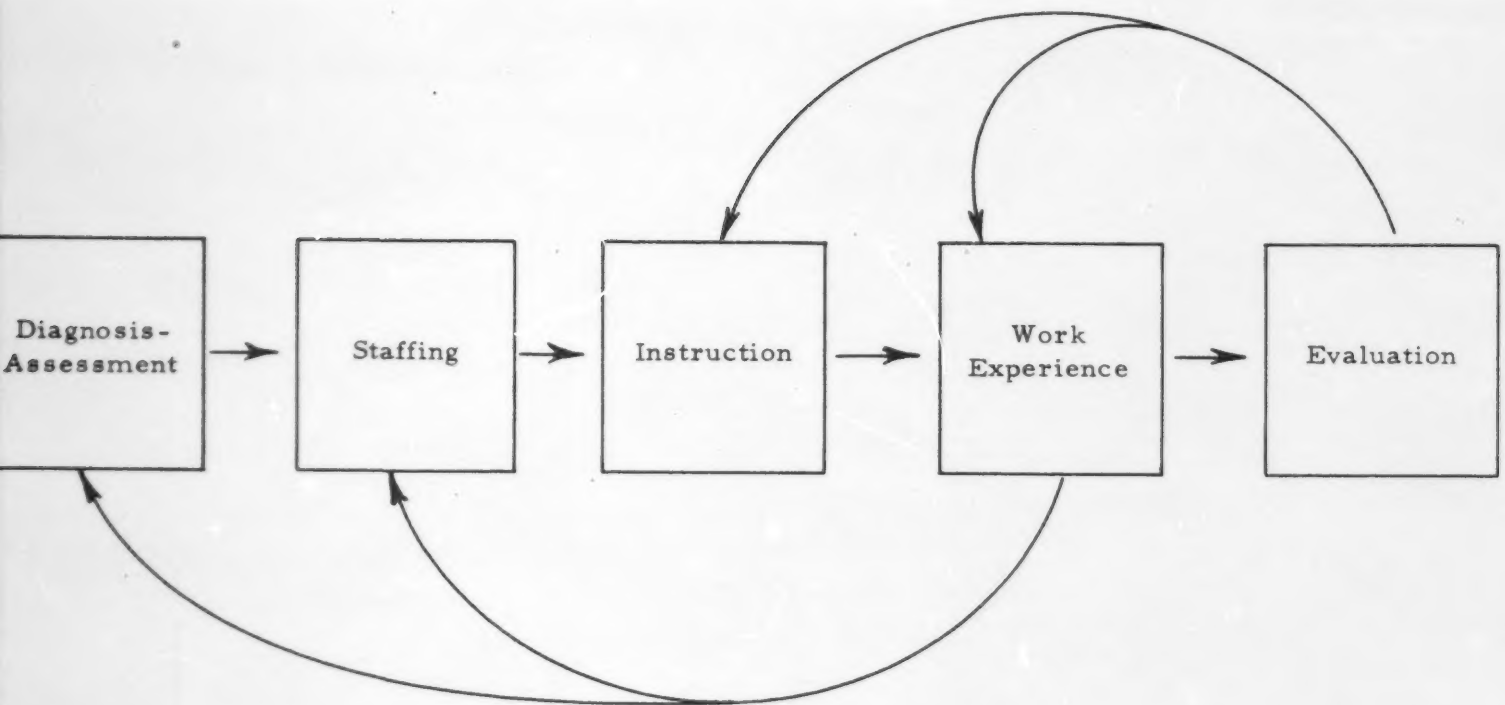
Once a disruptive youth has entered the program, it is recommended that the program proceed through five steps. (See Figure 2.)

1. Diagnosis-Assessment. At this level the student is given a selected test battery (N-GATB, Durrell Reading Test, and a Selected Interest Inventory) to evaluate his basic aptitude. Also, the prevocational counselor interviews the individual to identify personality (variables which may affect success or failure on the job) and determines the general career orientation of the youth.

2. Staffing. A conference is held at this point with all involved or soon to be involved personnel. Past school and institutional records, in addition to new diagnosis-assessment data, are used to determine the youth's recommended direction in schooling, training, and job experience.

3. Instruction. Here the youth begins the specified program outlined in the staffing. The program may involve regular schooling, job-study, technical training-study, and/or prevocational orientation. The intent of this level is to provide the disruptive youth controlled experiences, such as a specific job preparation or training in specific skills which will enable him to develop a career profession.

FIGURE 2



4. Work Experience. This level functions as an integral part of level 3. This is the point when the job coach assists the youth in adjusting to the world of work. The coach also acts as an intermediate between the youth and the employer in the event a misunderstanding develops.

5. Evaluation. The staff reassembles to assess the progress of the student and determines what new skills and experiences ought to be provided the youth.

In the event that a difficulty with the program at either level 3 or 4 occurs, the youth can be reassessed and programmed so that his needs and levels of competencies can be accounted for in the revised curriculum.

Conclusions

For too long chronically disruptive youth have been treated by public school, court, and correctional personnel as societal burdens. They have been provided programs that have been ineffective, watered down, and often irrelevant. The predominant skills of the personnel working with such youth are in psychology, not education. Thus, the treatment has failed to meet the educational and social needs of the students.

The literature demonstrates that many of these youth are not necessarily retarded or emotionally disturbed. They are, in fact, largely turned off and tuned out. What they need is not more therapy and advice. Rather, they need vocational direction. Given these personal directions, the disruptive youth can begin to perceive purpose to his academic and vocational experiences.

Currently, the disruptive youth views many programs as irrelevant and nonproductive, and the efforts in developing and redeveloping meaningful programs for such youth have not proven to be successful. The reason is that they have failed to incorporate the academic, vocational, and personal needs of each student. If society is going to provide these youth a meaningful educational experience which will enable him to contribute to society, then it is essential that a well-integrated program be developed.

This requires that the schools, the courts, and correctional agencies join with the various state and community agencies such as the Department of Employment, the Rehabilitation Services, and the United Way so that the transition from training to employment is smoother and more successful.

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